



Principal Component Analysis

How to Simplify and Visualise
Data Sets



Plan

- Data sets
- Curse of Dimensionality
- Struggle with Complexity
- Data sets approximation by lines and planes
- Least square definition of mean point
- “Least Square” definition of the first principal component



Plan

- Empirical covariance matrix
- Principal components are eigenvectors of empirical covariance matrix
- PCA scheme
- Eigenfaces and Eigenmuzzles



Principal components analysis (PCA)

is a technique used to reduce multidimensional data sets to lower dimensions for analysis. Depending on the field of application, it is also named:

- (i) the discrete Karhunen-Loève transform,**
- (ii) the Hotelling transform or**
- (iii) proper orthogonal decomposition (POD).**

How transform them into vectors?

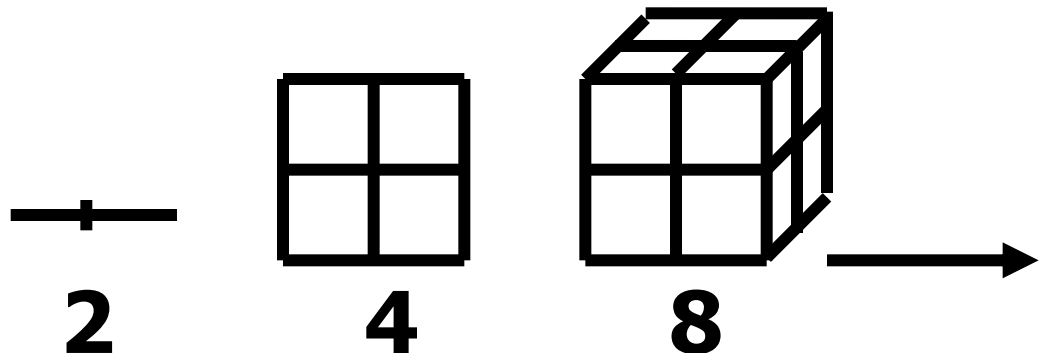




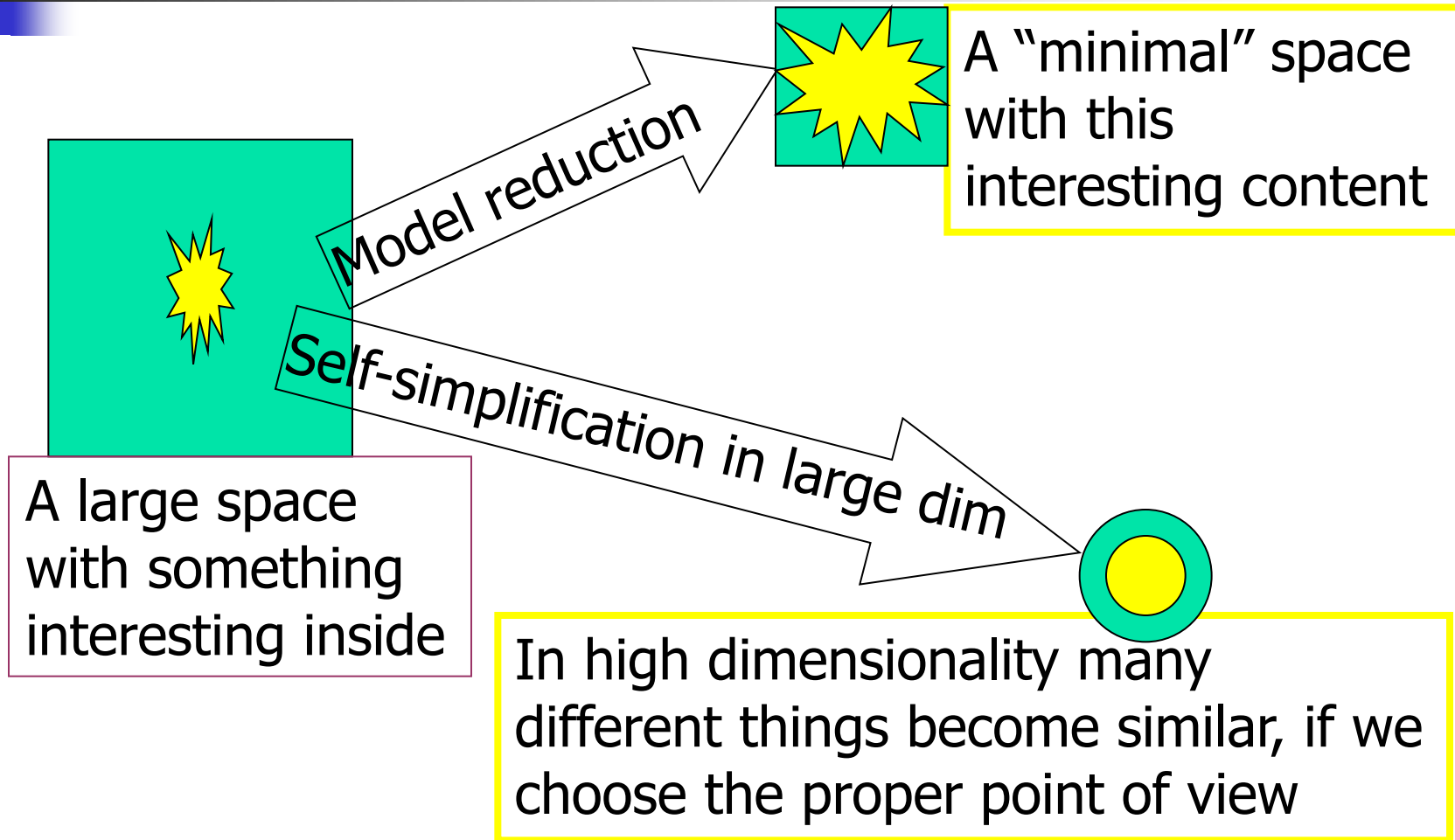
Curse of dimensionality

Curse of dimensionality (Bellman 1961) refers to the exponential growth of complexity as a function of dimensionality.

And what to do if $\text{dim} > 1000$?



Two Main Tricks in our Struggle with Complexity



A large space with something interesting inside

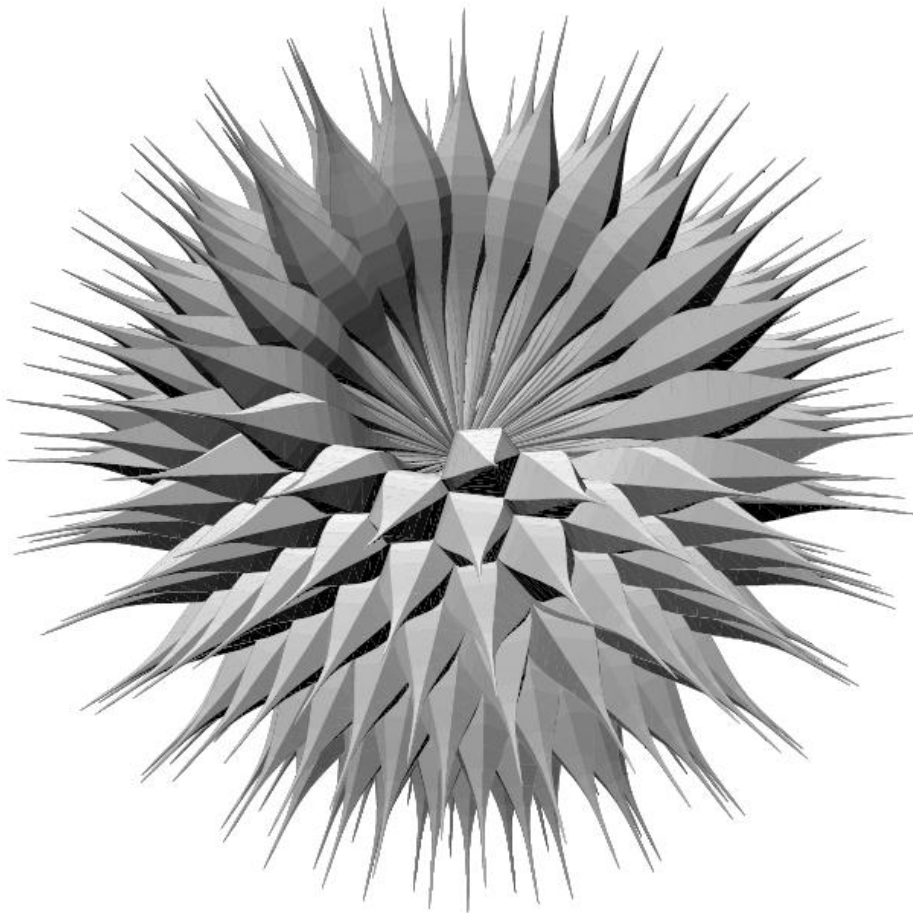
Model reduction

A "minimal" space with this interesting content

Self-simplification in large dim

In high dimensionality many different things become similar, if we choose the proper point of view

A 3D representation of an 8D hypercube



The body has the same radial distribution and the same number of vertices as the hypercube.

A very small fraction of the mass lies near a vertex.

Also, most of the interior is void.

(Hamprecht & Agrell, 2002)

Karl Pearson, 1901

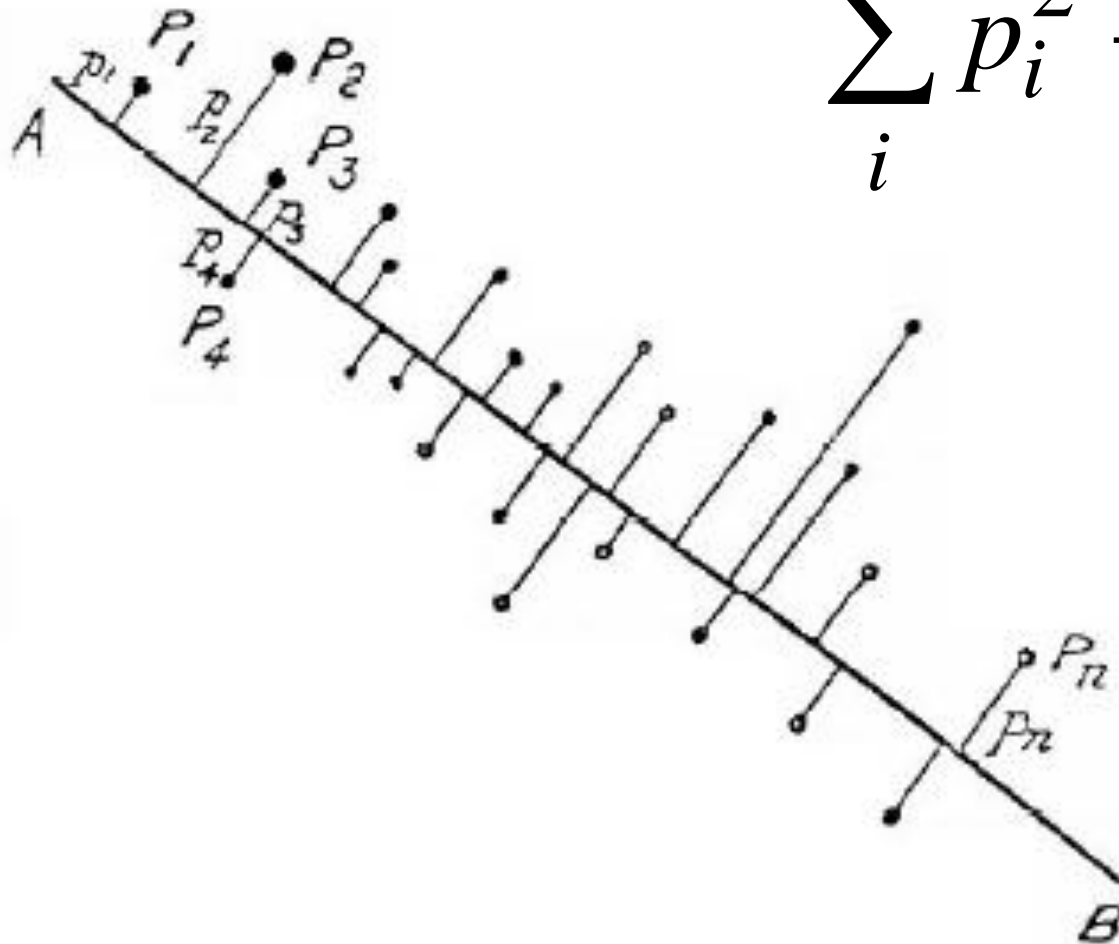
LIII. *On Lines and Planes of Closest Fit to Systems of Points in Space.* By KARL PEARSON, F.R.S., University College, London*.

(1) IN many physical, statistical, and biological investigations it is desirable to represent a system of points in plane, three, or higher dimensioned space by the "best-fitting" straight line or plane. Analytically this consists in taking

$$y = a_0 + a_1x, \quad \text{or} \quad z = a_0 + a_1x + b_1y,$$
$$\text{or} \quad z = a_0 + a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + a_3x_3 + \dots + a_nx_n,$$

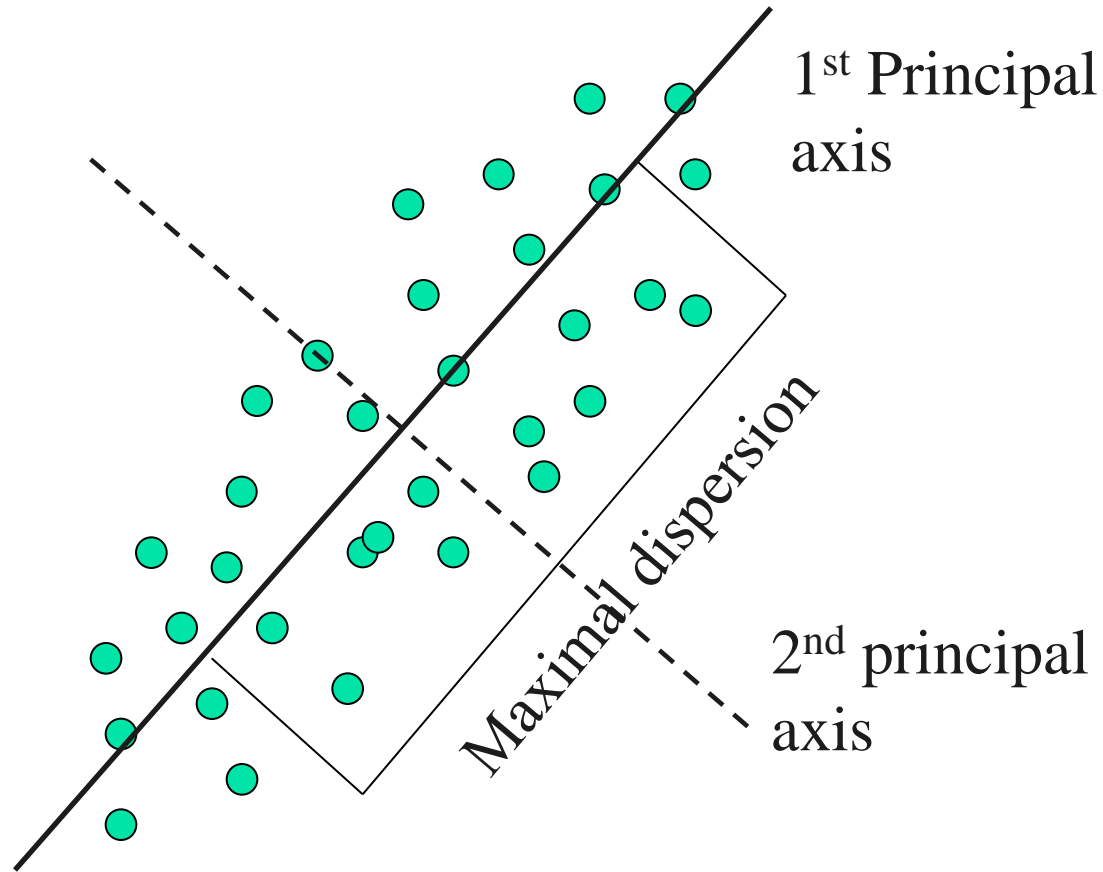
where $y, x, z, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ are variables, and determining the "best" values for the constants $a_0, a_1, b_1, a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ in relation to the observed corresponding values of the variables. In nearly all the cases dealt with in the text-books

Data approximation by a straight line. The illustration from Pearson's paper



$$\sum_i p_i^2 \rightarrow \min$$

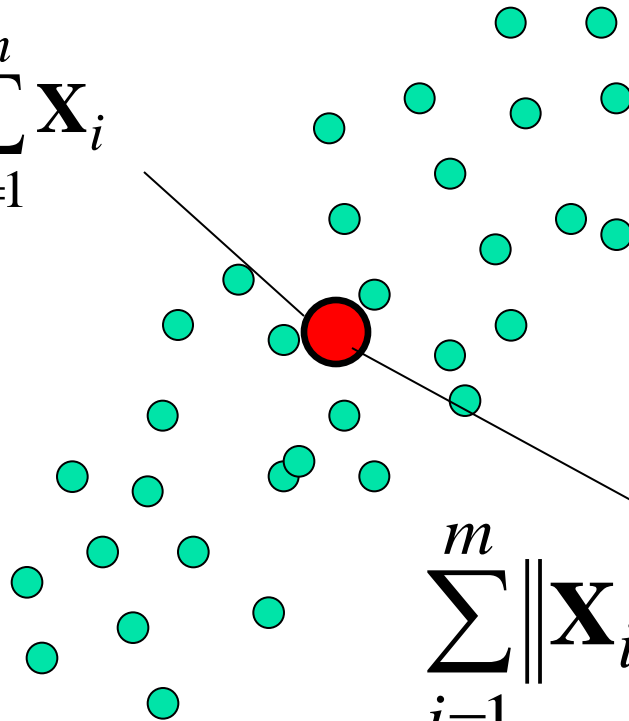
The closest approximation= The widest scattering of projections





Mean point

$$\langle \mathbf{X} \rangle = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_i$$



$$\sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{X}_i - \langle \mathbf{X} \rangle\|^2 \rightarrow \min$$

\mathbf{X}_i – datapoints, $i = 1, \dots, m$

X_{ij} – coordinates of datapoints, $j = 1, \dots, n$

“Least Square” definition of mean point

$$\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{Y}\|^2 \rightarrow \min, \quad \mathbf{Y} = ?$$

$$\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n (X_{ij} - Y_j)^2 \rightarrow \min;$$

$$\frac{\partial \Delta^2}{\partial Y_j} = -2 \sum_{i=1}^m (X_{ij} - Y_j) = -2 \left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij} \right) - m Y_j \right) = 0;$$

$$Y_j = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij}, \quad \mathbf{Y} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{X}_i = \langle \mathbf{X} \rangle.$$

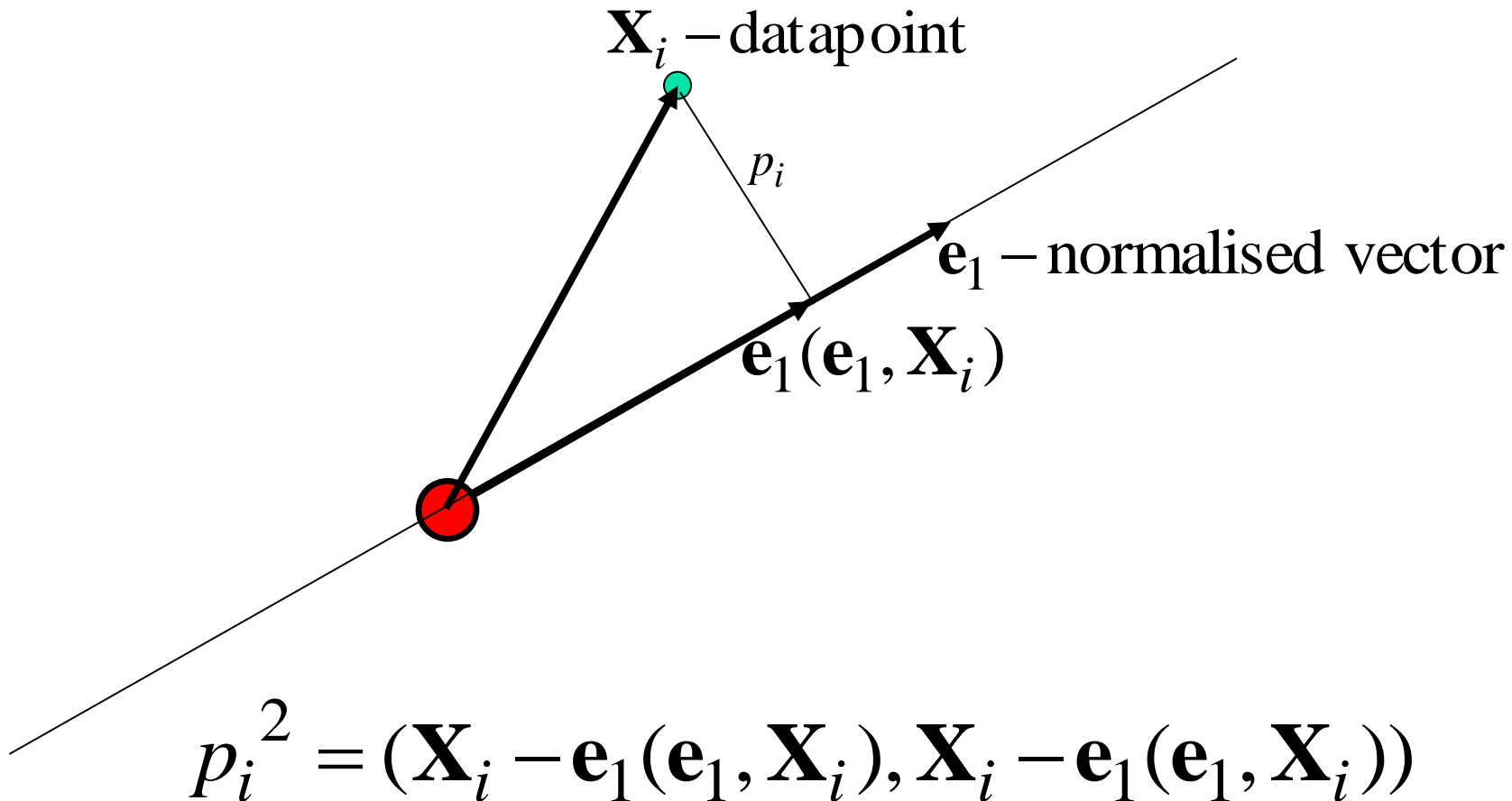


Centralisation

Let us centralise all data:
Mean Point=The Origin

$$\mathbf{X}_i \mapsto \mathbf{X}_i - \langle \mathbf{X} \rangle$$

“Least Square” definition of the first principal component



“Least Square” definition of the first principal component.2

$$\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{e}_1(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{X}_i), \mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{e}_1(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{X}_i)) \rightarrow \min; \quad \mathbf{e}_1 = ?$$

$$\Delta^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{e}_1(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{X}_i), \mathbf{X}_i - \mathbf{e}_1(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{X}_i)) =$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{X}_i) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{X}_i) - \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2;$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2 \rightarrow \max; \quad \mathbf{e}_1 = ?$$

Theorem: The closest approximation=The widest scattering of projections



“Least Square” definition of the first principal component.3

Theorem: The closest approximation = The widest scattering of projections

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2 \rightarrow \max; \quad \mathbf{e}_1 = ?$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e}_1)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} e_{1j} \right)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\sum_{j,k=1}^n X_{ij} e_{1j} X_{ik} e_{1k} \right) =$$

$$= \sum_{j,k=1}^n e_{1j} \left(\sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij} X_{ik} \right) e_{1k} = m(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{e}_1),$$

where $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})$ – empirical covariance matrix : $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})_{jk} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij} X_{ik}$

Properties of empirical covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})_{jk} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij} X_{ik}$$

1. $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})$ is symmetric: $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})_{jk} = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})_{kj}$;
2. $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})$ is positive definite: $(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{e}) \geq 0$.

Indeed, $(\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{e}) = \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{e})^2 \geq 0$

Hence, eigenvalues of $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})$ are non-negative real numbers,

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \lambda_n \geq 0$$

Principal components are eigenvectors of empirical covariance matrix. 1

$$\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})_{jk} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m X_{ij} X_{ik}$$

Eigenvalues of $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})$ are non-negative real numbers, $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \lambda_n \geq 0$;

$\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ are the correspondent orthonormal eigenvectors.

We are looking for $\mathbf{e}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i} \mathbf{v}_i$, $\varepsilon_{1i} = (\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{v}_i)$, $\sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i}^2 = 1$.

$$\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{e}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i} \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{v}_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i} \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i;$$

$$(\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{X})\mathbf{e}_1) = \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i}^2 \lambda_i \rightarrow \max \text{ under condition } \sum_{i=1}^m \varepsilon_{1i}^2 = 1.$$

Let first eigenvalues be different $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots$

In this case, $\varepsilon_{11}^2 = 1$, $\varepsilon_{1i} = 0$ ($i > 1$), $\mathbf{e}_1 = \pm \mathbf{v}_1$



Principal components are eigenvectors of empirical covariance matrix. 2

- Centralise data;
- Subtract projection on the first eigenvector;
- Solve the same minimisation problem again
 - – and immediately get: $e_2=v_2$
- Iterate!



Principal components analysis

- Calculate the empirical mean
- Calculate the deviations from the mean
- Find the covariance matrix
- Find the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of the covariance matrix
- Rearrange the eigenvectors and eigenvalues
- Compute the cumulative energy content for each eigenvector
- Select a subset of the eigenvectors as low-dimensional basis vectors
- Project the data onto the new basis